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THE FARM INDEX

August 1963

ECONOMIC RESEARCH SERVICE • U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE



**CASHING
IN
ON THE
COUNTRYSIDE**

also in this issue:

• The Deep Thirst of Agriculture • Atomic Rays for our Produce

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Item	Unit or base period	'57-'59 Average	1962		1963		
			Year	June	April	May	June
Prices:							
Prices received by farmers	1910-14=100	242	243	239	242	240	241
Crops	1910-14=100	223	230	234	244	246	244
Livestock and products	1910-14=100	258	255	242	240	235	239
Prices paid, interest, taxes and wage rates	1910-14=100	292	306	306	311	311	311
Family living items	1910-14=100	286	294	294	297	297	298
Production items	1910-14=100	262	269	268	273	273	272
Parity ratio		83	79	78	78	77	77
Wholesale prices, all commodities	1957-59=100	100.6	100.0	99.7	100.0	100.3
Commodities other than farm and food	1957-59=100	100.8	100.7	100.4	100.5	100.6
Farm products	1957-59=100	97.7	95.3	95.4	94.4	94.9
Food, processed	1957-59=100	101.2	99.8	99.3	101.5	102.1
Consumer price index, all items	1957-59=100	105.4	105.3	106.2	106.2
Food	1957-59=100	103.6	103.5	104.3	104.2
Farm Food Market Basket:¹							
Retail cost	Dollars	1,037	1,067	1,067	1,071	1,069
Farm value	Dollars	410	410	398	391	385
Farm-retail spread	Dollars	627	657	669	680	684
Farmers' share of retail cost	Per cent	40	38	37	37	36
Farm Income:							
Volume of farm marketings	1947-49=100	123	136	110	104	112	108
Cash receipts from farm marketings	Million dollars	32,247	35,921	2,326	2,257	2,342	2,200
Crops	Million dollars	13,766	15,935	850	670	691	800
Livestock and products	Million dollars	18,481	19,986	1,476	1,587	1,651	1,400
Realized gross income ²	Billion dollars	40.8	40.6
Farm production expenses ²	Billion dollars	28.2	28.6
Realized net income ²	Billion dollars	12.6	12.0
Agricultural Trade:							
Agricultural exports	Million dollars	4,105	5,031	471	500	506
Agricultural imports	Million dollars	3,977	3,876	288	348	323
Land Values:							
Average value per acre	1957-59=100	186 ³	123 ⁴
Total value of farm real estate	Billion dollars	104.1 ³	146.2 ⁴
Gross National Product²							
Consumption ²	Billion dollars	456.7	554.9	552.4	571.8 ⁵
Investment ²	Billion dollars	297.3	355.4	352.9	367.4 ⁵
Government expenditures ²	Billion dollars	65.1	78.8	79.6	77.8 ⁵
Net exports ²	Billion dollars	92.4	117.0	115.5	123.0 ⁵
	Billion dollars	1.8	3.8	4.4	3.6 ⁵
Income and Spending:							
Personal income	Billion dollars	442.1	440.7	456.2	458.2
Disposable income ²	Billion dollars	321.3	384.4	382.7
Total retail sales, seasonally adjusted	Million dollars	19,613	19,163	20,320	20,319	20,309
Retail sales of food group, seasonally adjusted	Million dollars	4,801	4,722	4,846	4,856
Employment and Wages:							
Total civilian employment, seasonally adjusted	Millions	67.8	67.7	68.9	68.7	68.6
Agricultural, seasonally adjusted	Millions	5.2	5.2	5.0	5.0	4.9
Rate of unemployment, seasonally adjusted	Per cent	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.9	5.7
Workweek in manufacturing, seasonally adjusted	Hours	40.4	40.5	39.9	40.6	40.9
Hourly earnings in manufacturing	Dollars	2.39	2.39	2.45	2.45	2.46
Industrial Production, seasonally adjusted							
1957-59=100	118	118	123	124	125
Manufacturers' Sales and Inventories:							
Total sales, seasonally adjusted monthly rate	Million dollars	33,260	32,960	34,910	34,870
Total inventories, seasonally adjusted	Million dollars	57,210	57,080	58,110	58,440
Total new orders, seasonally adjusted monthly	Million dollars	33,050	32,430	35,800	35,560

¹ Average annual quantities of farm food products based on purchases per wage-earner or clerical-worker family in 1952—estimated monthly.

² Annual rates seasonally adjusted second quarter. ³ As of July 1.

⁴ As of March 1. ⁵ Annual rates seasonally adjusted first quarter, 1963.

Sources: U.S. Department of Agriculture (Farm Income Situation, Market-

ing and Transportation Situation, Agricultural Prices, Foreign Agricultural Economics and Farm Real Estate Market Developments); U.S. Department of Commerce (Industry Survey, Business News Reports, Advance Retail Sales Report and Survey of Current Business); and U.S. Department of Labor (The Labor Force and Wholesale Price Index).

THE AGRICULTURAL OUTLOOK

The planted acreage this year is estimated at 2 per cent over the record low of 1962 (July crop report). Harvested acreage is predicted at only 1 per cent over last year . . . because of the unfavorable weather, yields may be down from 1962.

So far this year, increased livestock and crop marketings have led to slightly higher cash receipts by farmers compared to 1962. But production expenses have risen more than receipts . . . the index of prices paid by farmers for family living, production items, interest, taxes and wage rates was nearly 2 per cent above last year during the first half of 1963.

Economic activity continued to rise in the second quarter . . . the rate was nearly 5 per cent above April-June 1962. Government purchases were about 8 per cent above a year earlier. Also contributing to the increase were gains in industrial output, construction expenditures, personal income and retail sales.

Indicators point to a moderate increase in economic activity during the second half of 1963. Although second quarter employment was up from 1962, the labor force also increased . . . the

April-June unemployment rate was 5.7 per cent compared with 5.5 per cent in the second quarter last year. Retail sales continued around the \$20 billion level of recent months. Steel production in late June and early July dropped substantially from May . . . there may be further adjustment as stocks are worked down. Sales and new orders received by all manufacturers leveled during the second quarter while inventories increased slightly.

COMMODITY HIGHLIGHTS

The output of red **meat** during the third quarter is expected to include more beef, veal, lamb and mutton but less pork than in April-June. Beef supplies probably will take in more cow beef and less fed beef.

Prices of fed cattle recovered sharply in July and further gains are expected during the second half of the year. Prices of slaughter cows likely will move seasonally lower through the summer and early fall.

Third quarter hog prices are expected to continue at the current or a slightly higher level. Prices likely will be down seasonally after mid-September until late in the year.

Continuing below the 1962 level for the seventh consecutive month, June **milk** production was 11.9 billion pounds, only slightly under June 1962. Output in the next six months, however, likely will match the second half of 1962. Butter production in January-June was 8 per cent below a year earlier; American cheese output increased slightly. January-June CCC purchases were down 26 per cent from 1962 . . . purchases for the 12 months may fall about 1.6 billion pounds (milk equivalent) below the 10.6 billion bought in 1962.

A significant buildup in **broiler** hatching-egg flocks is taking place. Chick placements in these flocks were up 22 per cent in April, 40 per cent in May and 37 per cent in June compared to 1962 levels. If this trend persists, the prospect is for a large, price-depressing expansion in broiler production next winter.

Third quarter broiler slaughter will be about 5 to 10 per cent over last year. In the second quarter, the live weight of federally inspected slaughter was the same as a year earlier. Prices to producers at 14.9 cents per pound were 0.5

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cent higher. Prices in the third quarter likely will average below the 15.6 cents a year ago.

Egg producers this year are expected to raise somewhat fewer layer replacements than in 1962 . . . but the number of layers on farms probably will stay near 1962 levels during the remainder of 1963. Egg output and prices to producers in July-December probably will about equal year-earlier production.

The **turkey** crop in 1963 likely will total 93 to 94 million birds compared with 92.3 million last year. The movement from cold storage during January-June was only 113 million pounds compared with 142 million in 1962 due to competition from plentiful supplies of red meats. Frozen turkey stocks were 90 million pounds on July 1, down 31 million from July 1962.

Feed grain output in 1963 is estimated at close to 149 million tons, 4 per cent above 1962 but 4 per cent below the record output in 1960. Including carryover, the supply in 1963-64 likely will amount to about 210 million tons, 5 million less than in 1962-63. Total disappearance in the current marketing year is estimated to be around 154 million tons, about the same as the 1961-62 figure. If the present rate of disappearance continues, the carryover will be reduced moderately by the end of the 1963-64 marketing year.

Feed grain prices rose 18 per cent from November 1962 to June 1963, much more than the usual seasonal rise. The index of prices received by farmers in June was 8 per cent higher than a year earlier. Corn accounted for much of the increase . . . the average farm price reached \$1.16 per bushel in June, 13 cents higher than in 1962.

U.S. disappearance of **cotton** declined sharply during the 1962-63 season as mill consumption and exports fell below 1961-62. With 1962-63 disappearance about 11.7 million bales and the large 1962 crop, the estimated carryover on August 1, 1963, was about 11.1 million bales, 3.3 million above a year earlier.

Wheat production in 1963 is estimated at 1,111 million bushels compared with 1,093 million in 1962. Winter wheat at 875 million bushels is 7 per cent above last year, while spring wheat is 14 per cent lower. Exports in 1963-64 are expected to reach 675 million bushels. The price for wheat likely will be near the average loan rate of \$1.82 per bushel.

Soybean supplies during July-September will be less than in the same quarter last year while requirements will be greater. Carryover stocks on October 1 may be 25 million bushels or less, down sharply from 58 million at the beginning of 1961-62. Prices to farmers this summer will continue strong, probably averaging 5 to 10 per cent higher than the \$2.30 per bushel received in July-September 1962.

World **wool** production during the 1963-64 marketing season likely will be moderately above a year earlier and close to the record high in 1961-62. World wool prices are expected to be relatively stable during the early months of the 1963-64 marketing year at levels moderately below the five year high in June 1963. Consumption also is expected to remain steady through 1963.

The flue-cured **tobacco** crop in 1963 is estimated at 1,341 million pounds, 5 per cent below last year. The total supply for 1963-64 is about 3.5 per cent above 1962-63. Burley tobacco production this year is estimated below the record crop a year ago. The total supply for 1963-64, including the carryover, will be nearly 5 per cent above 1962-63.

The outlook for fresh **vegetables** and melons is for seasonally large supplies and moderate prices during the next four to six weeks as local crops supplement marketings from main producing areas. Canned and frozen vegetable supplies into late summer will be the same or slightly larger than last year. The price level of most of the major products will be low to moderate. Potato supplies are expected to stay fairly heavy during August and September . . . prices in most areas may be relatively low.

Production of deciduous fruits in 1963 is expected to be only 4 per cent smaller than the large 1962 crop despite the unfavorable weather last winter and spring. Grape and apricot crops are expected to increase substantially, plums moderately. Sharp decreases are in prospect for pears, sweet and sour cherries and Pacific Northwest prunes. Moderate decreases may occur in apples, peaches, nectarines, strawberries and California dried prunes. More almonds and less walnuts and filberts are expected this year compared to 1962.



THE DEEP THIRST OF AGRICULTURE

With the best use of its land and water resources, the United States could irrigate about 67 million acres of crop and pasture land at the most. It's an area about the size of Colorado, and we already irrigate about half that much.

If the total water supply seems ample, it is anything but in the West, which has over 90 per cent of our irrigated land.

If it weren't for the West's network of irrigation canals and deltas many of the valleys of winter vegetables, the cotton fields, the orchards and pastures would burn away within days. Arizona, for instance, harvests nearly all its crops from irrigated land. Nevada depends on irrigation for 90 per cent of its harvest. Four-fifths of California's crops are irrigated. Utah, Wyoming, New Mexico and Idaho all depend on irrigation to maintain over half their harvested cropland.

Irrigation is not, however, merely a regional concern. Irrigated crops make up about 20 per cent of the total value of U.S. crop output. And the productivity of our national farmland will depend

to some degree on finding more water for irrigation. It also depends on finding better ways to use the water we have.

Some estimates suggest that 10 per cent of the increase in agricultural output expected in the next 20 years will be the result of irrigation. And much of the increase will be the result of irrigating existing cropland, rather than bringing new lands into agricultural production.

Future developments in irrigation will be shaped largely by: attitudes toward public irrigation projects; the extent to which underground sources of water can be exploited; and the growing competition between agriculture and the rest of the economy for water resources.

Large scale public irrigation programs are mostly western enterprises. Public or quasi-public water delivery organizations serviced 42 per cent of the irrigated western lands in 1959. In the East, irrigation is generally a farm-by-farm undertaking. However, the lower Mississippi Valley states of Arkansas, Louisiana and Mississippi have many irrigation

organizations delivering water for that region's important rice industry.

Getting more water out of the ground is another problem, and a more difficult one with the years. Irrigation from ground water has risen from 17 per cent of the total acreage irrigated in 1939 to 44 per cent of the total in 1959.

And in the next 20 years, the amount of water withdrawn for agriculture is expected to increase 20 per cent; for industry and other non-agricultural uses, 133 per cent. Nevertheless, agriculture, and specifically irrigation, will remain the big user.

In 1960, for example, agriculture accounted for about 38 per cent of all water withdrawn from ground and surface sources, but for 83 per cent of the water finally consumed or not re-usable. In an arid state like New Mexico, agriculture accounted for 94 per cent of all water withdrawn and 96 per cent of the water consumed.

The growing demand for our limited water supplies means we will have to see to it that more of the water actually gets from the reservoir to the field. (1)

Much Water Wasted in the West Could Be Conserved Cooperatively

The amount of water we waste in the United States averages about half as much as we consume beneficially. Much of it is lost in the West because of high evaporation from water surfaces and excessive requirements of useless vegetation.

But in most of the water-short states of the West, complete water development is essential for economic growth. So the loss of 550,000 acre-feet a year in New Mexico, for example, is far more serious than it would be in one of the water-rich states in the East.

Possibilities for using water more efficiently include cutting consumptive waste, increasing the downstream yield from rainfall, and allocating water to its highest economic uses. Allocation in practice means balancing water requirements for municipal-industrial, irrigation and recreation purposes.

Allocation techniques have been worked out, but they need further refinement, especially considering the difficulty of measuring recreation benefits.

Much consumptive waste is from reservoir and pond evaporation, the heavy water requirements of such useless plants as salt cedar and seepage from irrigation canals.

Cooperative water management programs could cut down on such waste, and also conserve water from rainfall. Actual water yield from upland rainfall or snow could be appreciably increased in many localities by modifying or completely stripping vegetation, harvesting timber in such a way that runoff can be controlled, and regulating snowmelt.

In New Mexico and other water-short states, basin-wide water conservation programs could substantially increase supplies for all uses. (2)

WESTERN WATERS: Over 90 per cent of the nation's irrigated farmland is west of the Mississippi. Arizona irrigates 97 per cent of its harvested crop acreage and Nevada 89 per cent. California, Utah, Wyoming, New Mexico, and Idaho all irrigate well over half their harvested acreage of cropland. (1)



UNITED STATES TOTAL—33,162,978

1 DOT—10,000 ACRES

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

NEG. ERS 2121-63 (6)

PLASTIC STRIPS LOOK PROMISING FOR CULTIVATION OF RICE

You can't grow rice without levees, but they are a mixed blessing in the field.

Dirt levees require a lot of attention during the first part of the watering period, they harbor weeds, they get in the way of the harvest, and they take up space in the field. Recent experiments suggest that strips of plastic might do the job better.

These experiments on the use of plastic levees are being conducted by the California Experiment Station and the University of Arkansas. The California studies have

concentrated on developing suitable materials for the levees and designing equipment to install the strips rapidly. The research in Arkansas suggests that the use of the plastic strips might increase the yield by as much as 14.6 bushels an acre on land with a 0.4 per cent slope. With the more frequently found slope of 0.25 per cent, yields were increased by 9.2 bushels an acre.

Though the figures indicate plastic levees could be a boon to the rice farmer, the work is still in the preliminary stages. (3)

Colorado Farmers Boost Production By Use of Irrigation and Fertilizer

Water plus fertilizer has proved to be a production-boosting combination for farmers in northern Colorado.

Use of supplemental irrigation water has been common for some time in Colorado. In 1954, however, the Northern Colorado Water Conservancy District (NCWCD) began importing additional water from the Colorado River Basin into the South Platte Watershed. At present, nearly a fifth of the water used for irrigation by farmers in this district comes from the Colorado Basin.

Use of water per acre on irrigated farms in this area of Colorado more than doubled between 1951-53 and 1959-61. Irrigated crops received an average of 0.9 acre-feet per acre in the earlier period compared to two acre-feet by 1956-61. The cost of the water, in most cases, remained at an average of about \$2 per acre-foot.

With the extra water and use of fertilizer, crop acreages and yields climbed. Interviews of 150 farmers holding water allotments with the NCWCD indicated that irrigated acreages of all but two of the major crops in the area increased from 1951-53 to 1959-61.

On the average, corn plantings went from 35 to almost 50 acres per farm. Sugar beets increased eight acres to an average per farm of 38 acres. Dry bean and wheat acreages were slightly higher after the extra water was made available.

Along with the additional acres planted, fertilizer applications were stepped up. While only 41 per cent of these farmers were using fertilizer in 1951-53, 89 per cent had adopted the use of plant nutrients by 1959-61. Farmers who had been using fertilizer increased their applications. As a result, a per-farm average of 4.1 tons of plant nutrients was applied annually during 1959-61, compared to 1.3 tons in 1951-53.

With more fertilizer and water, yields were higher for all the principal irrigated crops except dry beans during 1959-61 than in 1951-53.

Since the use of fertilizer and irrigation water is closely keyed to the per-acre value of the crop, the high-value acreages of sugar beets and corn got the biggest share of both water and nutrients.

Many farmers in this section of Colorado quit in the decade between 1949 and 1959. However, this left the remaining producers with more possibilities for expansion. (4)

PLANNING NEEDED TO ENSURE LONG-RANGE WATER SUPPLY

While teams of economists explore ways to use the growing surplus of cropland, other technicians are at work on a problem of scarcity—too little water.

The situation is made no easier by the fact that any solution must reconcile the sometimes conflicting needs of industry and agriculture, the immediate uses for land and the long-term requirements of the nation.

The counties of northeastern Oregon, for example, are sparsely populated by eastern standards, but they sometimes find there isn't

enough water to go around. The trouble is that more people are finding more ways to use water.

In the late 1920s farmers irrigated some 52,000 acres of land; today they irrigate close to 74,000 acres. At the same time, the population of the area has grown from 29,000 to nearly 50,000.

Making sure the farmers continue to have enough water for their crops and the towns get enough water for their needs will call for better conservation practices all the way from the source of supply in the mountains to the

irrigation ditches in the valleys below.

New logging methods, for example, could lessen the damage to ground cover and reduce the amount of debris that clogs the rivers. Replanting a damaged area helps to maintain the cover crop.

New roads built through the watershed should be located far enough away from streams so that mud and rubble don't clog the river beds.

And when reservoirs are being laid out, the designers should realize that the water development will be a natural attraction for tourists, and plan accordingly with adequate recreation and sanitary facilities.

In some areas, the wildlife is overrunning the range, destroying necessary ground cover. Better management of the wildlife population is necessary to protect the area.

Better distribution of range animals with proper fencing, salting and watering will help to maintain the watershed.

These are some of the practices that will protect the water supply at its source. But it is just as important to conserve water supplies on the farm.

Old flumes and diversion structures should be repaired where necessary, to cut down on the loss of water. The method of irrigation, too, should be adapted to the texture of the soil. Shaping and leveling the land are good ways to get more out of the water used.

Strip cropping has already proved its usefulness in combating erosion, particularly in dryland wheat fields. It cuts down on both wind and water erosion. Stubble mulch can also protect the soil from wind and water, especially when combined with deep-furrow planting. Grassed waterways and field diversions are other ways to protect the field from water erosion. In high-erosion areas, fields should be planted to permanent grass for seed or forage production. (5)

1962 COSTS AND RETURNS



Net incomes on typical **western livestock ranches**—cattle operations in the Southwest, intermountain areas and Northern Plains—showed slight to large improvement over 1961.

For the cattle ranches: operators in the Southwest made \$8,237, compared to \$8,167 in 1961; in the intermountain region, net income averaged \$11,730 last year and \$9,998 in 1961; and in the Northern Plains, returns were \$7,252 in 1962 and \$6,277 the previous year.

Southwestern sheep ranchers had net incomes of \$9,267, compared with \$8,652 a year earlier, and those in the Northern Plains reported returns of \$11,850 last year and \$6,831 in 1961.

Early spring drought was a problem in a few scattered areas. However, abundant rainfall in late spring and early summer improved pastures and allowed ranchers to market animals at considerably heavier weights in the summer and fall.

Prices for range calves, lambs and wool moved up in 1962 over 1961 levels.

Cash expenses crept up as usual. In several instances, total cash outlay for production items was at a record high but mostly because of larger quantities purchased.

With larger herds, the possibility of drought and poor pastures this year, and the current prices for fed cattle, net incomes for western ranches may well be lower in 1963. (6)



Commercial **egg producers** in New Jersey averaged \$3,017 in net income last year—\$1,942 below net income for 1961.

The drop in income was caused by a 3 per cent cut in prices received for eggs plus a 1 per cent decline in rate of lay, compared to 1961. Total cash expenses were up, too.

Prices received for eggs on typical New Jersey poultry farms averaged 34.8 cents a dozen in 1962. Prices averaged 35.9 cents in 1961.

Gross farm income averaged \$27,505 in 1962, down \$869 from 1961. The share from eggs was \$25,834. The only other source of income for these operators is the sale of cull layers. Returns from cull birds were up slightly, since more culls were sold in 1962, but they accounted for less than 5 per cent of gross income.

Total cash expenditures averaged \$24,488 per

farm in 1962, \$764 more than a year earlier. Both the size of flock and prices paid for poultry feed increased about 3 per cent over 1961. The feed bill for the typical egg producer usually accounts for three-quarters of his cash expenses. (7)



Net incomes on five types of commercial **dairy farms** ranged from about 3 per cent higher to roughly 21 per cent lower in 1962. Net returns were: eastern Wisconsin grade A, \$6,221, down 7 per cent from 1961; eastern Wisconsin grade B, \$4,430, up nearly 3 per cent; southeastern Minnesota dairy-hog farms, \$4,409, down \$459 from a year earlier; and central Northeast dairies, \$3,549, compared with \$4,497 in 1961.

Although prices received by these dairymen were from 2 to 5 per cent lower in 1962, total cash receipts were higher because of increased marketings. However, prices paid moved up 1 to 4 per cent and larger quantities of production items were purchased. (8)



Net returns were higher last year than in 1961 on two and lower on one of three types of **tobacco-livestock farms** in the Kentucky Bluegrass region.

Net farm income for typical farms in the inner Bluegrass area was estimated at \$7,652 per farm, nearly 3 per cent above 1961. In addition to tobacco and other crops, these farmers produce beef cattle, sheep and hogs.

The estimated net return for tobacco-dairy farms producing ungraded milk in the intermediate Bluegrass area was estimated to be \$2,805 in 1962, nearly 4 per cent less than in 1961.

Production per farm was greater than in 1961 on each of these farm types. Output increased because of larger tobacco acreages, higher yields per acre of tobacco and corn, larger dairy and beef herds and increased milk production per cow.

Prices received for products sold averaged lower than in 1961. Largely responsible were lower prices for tobacco and milk. Prices for cattle, calves, sheep, lambs and wool improved from the previous year.

Operating expenses increased in 1962 as more inputs were needed than in the previous year. Record high prices paid also helped to boost expenses. (9)

Walks and Rides in the Countryside Lead the List of Outdoor Pastimes

Recreation is important to a healthy childhood. It's important to adults, too. A recent study, for example, revealed that 90 per cent of all adults engaged in one or more recreational activities in a year. The activities ranged from such gentle pastimes as sightseeing and picnicking to rugged skiing and horseback riding.

The study was conducted by the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC).

Today, to help provide space for outdoor activity, the Department of Agriculture is directly sponsoring private recreation developments on land no longer needed for farming.

Under the Food and Agriculture Act of 1962, individual farmers, and associations serving farmers and rural people, can receive loans for recreation developments. Farmers can also receive cost-share payments for certain recreation facilities and can be paid for converting farmland into recreation grounds.

According to the ORRRC report, getting to the recreation grounds usually presents a serious problem in the use of available resources. A report covering the New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania metropolitan areas showed that the open countryside is often difficult if not impossible to reach from the crowded city centers.

Usually there is little public transportation to the recreation area and no one is eager to battle weekend traffic congestion. The problem is apt to take much of the pleasure out of a day in the country.

The ideal solution would be to provide public transit to recreation areas within easy commuting distance.

There are, for instance, thousands of small areas that would be suitable for simple recreation de-

velopments in the suburbs near the cities.

Most of the tracts are on farms or in forests and are 30 acres or more. They are ideal for picnic grounds, day camping, play areas, swimming, hiking and general outdoor enjoyment. (10)

Motel Trade in Missouri Ozarks Increases Money, Work in Area

People in the Missouri Ozarks jingle more money in their pockets today than ever before. One reason for the added money is the growing motel business—motels built primarily to accommodate tourists. In 10 years the tourist trade more than doubled the median family income in 31 Ozark counties, pushing it from \$1,300 to more than \$3,000. And the trade is still growing.

Back in 1951, only 380 motels dotted the Ozarks—barely enough to accommodate passing visitors. Recognizing motels as a great potential source of income to the Ozarks, businessmen began to build. By 1960, the number of motels expanded to more than 900. That year six million tourists paid \$14 million for motel services. Businessmen made money—so did the community. For example, in 1960, motels provided jobs for more than 2,700 local residents—925 operators and 1,785 employees.

More than half of all motels had gross receipts of less than \$5,000. Only 9 per cent had gross receipts greater than \$20,000.

Motel owners in the Ozarks—like owners everywhere—have problems too. A serious problem confronting motel owners is keeping their rooms full. Many motel owners rent all of their units during the peak summer season but are lucky to rent half of them during the winter. These facts underscore the importance of introducing new recreational activities to help lengthen the tourist season. (11)

Summer Residents Spark Economy; They Pay Taxes and Create Jobs

Is recreation a money-maker? Take a look at the figures that piled up in a study of Taney County, Missouri.

In 1960, families with vacation homes spent about \$590,000 in the area—\$340,000 for supplies and \$250,000 for new construction. The study, conducted by ERS in cooperation with the Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, revealed that part-time residents are an important part of the population. In Taney County they own 16 per cent of the residential property. And during the peak vacation season, they make up about 10 per cent of the population.

Most of the part-time residents who own houses in Taney County are 35 years old and over. Their incomes average \$9,000 a year and their homes range from the \$500 shack in the woods to handsome retreats costing upwards of \$75,000. These summer homes are connected with electricity and 28 per cent are air-conditioned.

The part-time dweller manages to spend an average of three months a year in the county. About two thirds of the time represents weekend use of the summer homes.

The vacation population should continue to swell. At the moment there are about 300 homes in Taney County owned by summer residents. By 1975, there may well be close to 2,000 homes if present trends continue.

By paying taxes, hiring local inhabitants, building homes, and buying goods locally, part-time residents add to the overall economic health of the county. For example, in 1949 the median income of families in Taney County was \$1,280. Ten years later, incomes had more than doubled.

If the influx of part-time residents continues, by 1975 they will be spending well over \$7 million annually in the county. (12)

*Turning unused acres into a profitable recreation
enterprise calls for careful planning,
unending attention to the comfort and satisfaction of customers
and long, hard days of work during the season*

CASHING IN ON THE COUNTRYSIDE

Recreation as a business for farmers may be nothing more complicated than hiring out as a guide for fishermen, or it may be a \$50,000 investment in a dude ranch complete with lodge, swimming pool and stables.

Despite the variety, however, there are some common denominators in recreation enterprises.

The first requisite is scenery. For a large part of the population, outdoor recreation consists solely in enjoying a view of the countryside—a walk through the woods, or a picnic along a shaded river edge.

With an attractive bit of land, the next thing the farmer needs is people, and the closer the better if he intends to keep his picnic grounds busy, his lake full of swimmers. Of course, some recreation facilities can afford to be off the beaten track. A dude ranch, for instance, can bid for guests a hundred miles or more away.

And when it comes to selling sunshine and fresh air in a pastoral setting, the farmer should be prepared to start out slowly. Whatever the scale of his business, the chances are he'll get few customers the first season or two. Advertising can help to draw visitors, but the farmer will generally have to rely on word-of-mouth promotion to boost his patronage.

Another cautionary note has to do with credit. Picnic tables, swimming docks, or a few boats, let alone cabins and dining rooms, all take money. And operating

equipment for most recreation enterprises is unlikely to stand as chattel for a loan. The operator's borrowing capacity may depend to a large extent upon his real estate holdings or the returns from his recreation business.

But most of all, the important thing to remember is that turning recreation to profit calls for work and more work as long as the season lasts. Once the operator has captured his customers, he may find himself and his wife and his children working 16 to 17 hours a day, seven days a week.

When the season ends, the farmer may find himself adding up modest but satisfying receipts. The receipts are apt to be more satisfying if the part-time or ex-farmer discounts the value of his own and his family's labor and the value of his investment. A strict accounting, which subtracts the cost of labor and management and the interest on investment, may leave little left over for net returns.

The chances are the farmer will find his recreation enterprise more profitable the more closely he can tie it into the existing farm operation, both in terms of labor and equipment needed. This approach makes it easier for the operator to continue working his farm. It gives him time to gain experience in the new venture. A slow and fairly modest start will also give him a chance to accumulate receipts for further expansion.

It also helps if the farmer starts out with a keen interest in the pastime. The better the hunter he is, for instance, the more he is apt to turn hunting into a profitable sideline occupation.

The same attitude of enthusiasm spread through the community as a whole also helps to make recreation a successful business. If the community accepts vacationers and picnickers with pleasure, instead of looking on them as wayward interlopers, the customers are apt to stay longer and come back more often.

As is true with any other business, the prospective operator should take a close look at his competition. The farmer who decides to open a campground a few miles down the road from a public resort has, presumably, made certain that there will be overflow crowds to fill his own grounds. At the same time, a public lake nearby or a national forest may be reason enough for starting a bait farm or opening a riding stable.

Competition can, of course, come from other private developers. With some luck, and more than a little cooperation, the existence of such competitors can be turned to profit by a pooling of advertising and promotion efforts.

Damage claims and insurance are another point for the operator to check. Without adequate coverage, the farmer could find his assets completely wiped out as the result of a single liability lawsuit. (13)



It happened in Arkansas:

A farmer with 2,400 acres in the Delta area adds to his income by leasing duck hunting rights to a club. The operator, who grosses \$50,000 a year from his farm, picks up another \$4,300 from the club which has about 25 members. Some 300 acres of timberland are now flooded and the farmer has built two buildings for the club. The club itself regulates the level of use, and the operator is responsible only for providing water and protecting the area from poachers. The 16 weeks of labor that go into the enterprise are supplied by the workers who spend the rest of their time on the 1,400 acres of crops. The pumps and wells needed for the hunting area are used for crops during the growing season.

A local coal miner who could see his work running out several years ago bought 400 acres in farmland and strip pits. By 1957 he had built 27 minnow ponds in the pits. As the bait business improved, he withdrew from farming and converted a barn and other buildings to storage for fish feed and equipment. With the help of a hired hand who works from March through July, the ex-miner sells a million and a half minnows annually to some 20 bait dealers within a 40-mile radius of the farm. He could easily sell more bait but feels he is too close to retirement for expanding the enterprise. The outlay for feed in the minnow farm (the biggest ex-

pense item) is kept to about one-third the usual amount in such an enterprise by buying feed particles from a burlap bag cleaning plant. The minnows provide the fish bait farmer with an income of about \$10,265 a year on an investment of \$22,853.

To escape the city grind, a former employee of a farm machinery company bought 200 acres of rolling timberland in northern Arkansas where he set up a dude ranch. He built a lodge, dining room, recreation hall, stable, and a swimming pool, and recently added a game preserve. The ranch can accommodate 30 persons comfortably and has, on one occasion, taken care of 50 high school students. The man and his wife employ two full-time and five seasonal workers and expect to hire another four workers this year. The owners are adding five more guest rooms and a larger dining room and expect to increase their staff soon. They have about \$56,000 invested in the ranch and their annual expenses run to nearly \$28,000. Labor costs are about \$8,000 a year and feed, food and birds run to nearly \$14,000. The ranch provides the family with a net income of about \$4,200 a year.

A rancher from Texas started a cattle enterprise on 785 acres of timber and grassland in west central Arkansas and soon found it necessary to supplement his income. He built a 150-acre lake and opened it to fishermen, added a block and frame restaurant on

the lake front, put up five docks for boating and swimming, and brought in electricity for camping grounds. Aside from fishing and swimming, the lake is used for water skiing on Sundays and two afternoons a week and for occasional boat races arranged to publicize the area. The energetic developer is also selling 30 lots on the edge of the lake and building a few cabins to rent. During the season, which lasts from Easter through September, the grounds are open from 4:30 in the morning to midnight, with the operator and his wife both working about 17 hours a day. To date, the operator has close to \$60,000 invested in his recreation business. His income from the enterprise last year, including \$6,000 from the sale of lots, was \$14,314. His expenses amounted to \$10,434.

A farmer in north central Arkansas, looking for extra cash to pay the taxes on his 294-acre farm back in 1956, took to guiding fishing parties. Today the guide service keeps him busy 12 hours a day most of the week from March through October and earns him close to \$3,000. The income is in addition to farm sales that run between \$2,500 and \$5,000. His total capital investment in the guide service amounts to about \$700 and expenses run to about \$220 a year.

The income figures in these case histories include returns to owned capital, family labor and management. (13)





ATOMIC RAYS FOR OUR PRODUCE

*Fresh-produce handlers predict bright future
for new process that uses atomic rays to kill spoilage bacteria
in fruits and vegetables*

"Sunny days ahead."

That, to paraphrase results of a summer 1962 survey, is one forecast of the marketing weather ahead for radiation-pasteurized fruits and vegetables.

Making the forecast were 306 fresh produce handlers who participated in a survey conducted by the Economic Research Service for the Division of Isotopes Development of the Atomic Energy Commission. They comprised 171 growers and shippers, 111 wholesalers, and 24 chainstore produce managers.

The produce handlers gave their opinions and judgments about the merits of radiation pasteurization as a method of extending the cold storage life of strawberries, peaches, tomatoes, grapes, oranges and grapefruit.

Although radiation pasteurization is not yet available for commercial use, technical research on it has reached the point where an evaluation of its economic feasibility is needed.

One facet of economic feasibility is trade and consumer acceptance, which the produce han-

dlers estimated in their answers to 11 survey questions.

A high percentage of the persons interviewed believed that successful market introduction of radiation-pasteurized fruits and vegetables would depend on an effective educational or promotional program to dispel fear of radiation in the minds of consumers. Such a program should explain the process to consumers, tell of its potential value, and assure them that its use leaves the fruit or vegetable absolutely safe to eat.

The radiation-pasteurization process utilizes the action of atomic rays to destroy bacteria with the same effect as heat when it is used to pasteurize milk. As with heat, the radiation does its work and moves on.

Most of the handlers surveyed thought radiation pasteurizing would increase the production and market volume of the fresh fruits and vegetables in the survey. They thought it would help reduce spoilage losses and maintain quality.

Most of those surveyed thought

only minor changes in current produce handling methods would be required to accommodate radiation processing.

The survey also provided preliminary estimates of the trade's view of:

—Expected advantages and disadvantages of the process.

—Costs of the process that might be absorbed by the marketing system.

—Length of extension of refrigerated storage life desired by handlers of the six commodities.

—Size, type, and location of radiation processing facilities needed.

So far laboratory research has shown that most fruits and vegetables can be irradiated to extend their shelf life two to six weeks at refrigeration temperatures. The fruits and vegetables so treated not only are safe to eat but also can have the same eating quality and food value as they had before treatment. However, with high dosage levels, minute losses in nutritional value have been reported. Irradiation also can be used to control ripening. (14)

Research Paves the Way for Giant Strides in Tallow Output; Increased Production Could Reach 5 Billion Pounds by 1970

Tallow production climbed some 57 per cent from 1952 to 1961. In the same period, renderers (excluding meat packers) expanded their share of total tallow production from 1.3 billion pounds to 2.3 billion pounds—a 77 per cent increase, and tallow output per man hour nearly doubled, going from 65 pounds to 121 pounds.

To market this large volume of inedible animal fats required a concerted research effort by the rendering industry and government. The results have been spectacular. For example, today the mixed feed industry uses up almost as much fat as the soap industry. New products such as plasticizers, lubricants and insecticide carriers have tremendous possibilities.

Research in markets abroad revealed a potential for greater exports of tallow to be used in foreign soap industries. By 1962, tallow exports of 1.8 billion pounds were almost as large as total industry production in 1947.

But the growth in industry production didn't come easily. Drastic economic changes after World War II forced the renderers to intensify their research efforts to maintain markets.

For example, the shrinking demand for glycerine in munitions and in soap cut into sales. Non-animal fats and oils were easily obtained. Processing costs for rendering were high; the selling price of tallow was low.

Limited economic and technical information about rendering further complicated the picture. For example, only two books had ever been written on rendering—one in 1929 and the other in 1949.

From this situation, two facts emerged. To stay in business, renderers had to develop new markets or new products. They also had to pare operating costs

to a minimum.

To help reach these goals, renderers looked to research to improve overall efficiency. Nutritionists, chemists, and economists recommended new technology.

Realizing that collection costs more than processing, researchers suggested new pick-up practices, new routes for trucks and radio equipment to speed collection. It paid off. In 1952, a truck driver delivered four tons of material a day to the plant. By 1961, the same driver had increased his load to seven tons by picking up more material at each stop.

Cookers and presses had not been fully used in the plants; thus the industry had a large excess processing capacity. Plant labor was frequently idle.

In short, general processing throughout the industry was woefully inefficient. By making recommended changes, renderers increased their production and decreased their labor force. Most

rendering plants had mechanized processing by 1961. Recently the trend has been toward completely automated systems.

Now the industry faces a new problem—finding markets for increased production. Inedible tallow production could amount to about 5 billion pounds a year by 1970, based on an estimated cattle slaughter of 35 million head and assuming the tallow yields remain about the same.

A whole new program promoting tallow for soap may be introduced in Africa, Asia, and South America where per capita use of soap is low. The foreign market can stimulate the industry. Exports of tallow and grease to the Philippines, for example, increased from 14.8 million pounds in 1960 to 21 million pounds last year.

The individual renderer can push for greater efficiency in his own plant. Reducing overtime, for instance, helps lower overall costs. Protein control is another good way to save money. More laboratory testing of protein control can lead to more accurate mixing and result in a greater margin of profit. (15)

PREMIUMS FOR HIGH-PROTEIN WHEAT CHANGE WITH SUPPLY

Wheat growers who produce hard wheat with a high protein content can count on premium prices from millers of bread flour. The premiums, however, vary extremely from year to year.

A study of premiums paid for hard winter or spring wheat showed that premiums were directly related to supply available.

The study by ERS economists consisted of an analysis of prices paid for high-protein hard spring wheat in Minneapolis and high-protein hard winter wheat in Kansas City, Mo., during three crop years: 1959-60, '60-61, '61-62.

Premiums for hard spring wheat with a 15-per-cent-or-higher protein content were highest for the 1961-62 crop when only 43

million bushels were available.

They were lowest for 1960-61 when about 58 million bushels were available.

These premiums were in addition to \$2.31 and \$2.12 per bushel, respectively, paid for wheat of ordinary protein content during those years.

Premiums for hard winter wheat with a protein content of 13 per cent or more were also highest in 1961-62; that year only about 90 million bushels were available. Premiums were lowest for 1959-60 when about 241 million bushels were available.

The price for hard winter wheat of ordinary protein content was \$2.07 in 1961-62 and \$2.01 in 1959-60. (16)

New Africa Banks Mainly on Money Backed by Europe for Easier Trade

Buying a giraffe in Tanganyika? You'll pay in East African shillings, backed by the English pound. Eyeing gold bracelets in Senegal? You'll need special African francs guaranteed by France. Hungry for mangoes on a hot afternoon in Liberia? That's easy. The official currency of Liberia is the U.S. dollar.

Africa now has 33 politically independent nations. For the most part all have the right to sever monetary ties with European countries or the United States. But so far only nine countries have broken away entirely.

These nine are the United Arab Republic, Sudan, Ethiopia, Somali Republic, the Congo, Rwanda, Burundi, Guinea and Mali. By cutting their monetary ties with Europe, however, these nine nations have lost preferential treatment in regard to tariffs and quotas in associated countries. They have also lost such fiscal advantages as availability of foreign exchange and other payment and collection privileges associated with international trade.

The other 24 independent African nations plus 15 dependencies

fall into two groups. Countries in the first group issue their own currency through one of their own financial institutions but are subject in varying degrees to monetary regulation by a foreign nation. Countries within the sterling area having this relatively free arrangement include, among others, the Republic of South Africa, Ghana and Nigeria. Within the French franc area there are only three countries—Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria.

Most countries fall in the second monetary group. While these countries have their own currency it is issued by a foreign nation or by a regional bank or currency board over which they have little or no control.

For example, a regional currency board issues and regulates the flow of East African shillings which circulate in Tanganyika and Uganda, both newly independent, and in Kenya and Zanzibar, both still dependencies of Great Britain. The East African shilling is freely convertible with the pound sterling. A West African Currency Board similarly issues and controls the currency of Sierra Leone and Gambia.

The South African Currency Area, part of the sterling area, uses the South African rand in the Republic of South Africa and four dependent entities—Southwest Africa, Bechuanaland, Swaziland and Basutoland.

A special African franc circulates in 13 countries that were formerly dependencies of France. The franc is issued in five of these countries through a central bank for equatorial Africa, in seven countries through a similar bank for West Africa.

The U.S. dollar area not only includes Liberia, where dollar notes and coins have been legal tender since 1943, but French Somaliland. Although tied politically to France, French Somaliland since 1949 has used the Djibouti franc, covered 100 per cent by a U.S. dollar fund. (17)

U.S. TRADE IN COTTON TEXTILES
swung from an export balance in 1961
to an excess of imports in 1962

Date	Imports	Exports	Trade balance
Thousand bales			
1961:			
December	43.6	40.9	2.7 ¹
Jan.-Dec.	393.1	498.3	105.3 ²
1962:			
December	48.7	37.7	11.0 ¹
Jan.-Dec.	644.6	460.9	183.6 ¹

¹ Import trade balance. ² Export trade balance.

Cotton Textile Exports Fell in '62 As Imports Hit New Record High

Exports of U.S. cotton textiles last year, the equivalent of 460.9 thousand bales, hit the lowest level since the middle of the Second World War. In the same period, imports of cotton textiles at 644.6 thousand bales were 119,100 bales over the previous record set in 1960. Imports were greater than exports for the first time on record in 1960.

The 1962 cotton trade deficit was 183,600 bales.

Textile exports have declined at a rate of about 6 per cent a year since 1946. Imports have trended upward at a rate of 22 per cent. (19)

New Trade Pact

The Soviet-Brazilian trade pact signed recently is a change from previous agreements. Payment imbalances under this agreement may be transferred to settle imbalances in accounts between Brazil and other bloc countries.

The USSR is apparently planning to commit to Brazil in 1963-65 approximately one-half of its average wheat exports to the free world since 1955. Brazil is slated to get 500,000 metric tons this year, 700,000 tons by 1965.

Brazil hopes to get larger markets for its coffee, maybe 40,000 metric tons or more, cotton and rice. (18)

Debt Down

Although the deficit problem is still with us, the U.S. balance of payments position has improved steadily since last quarter 1961.

The overall deficit in 1962 was about \$2 billion, compared with \$2.5 billion in 1961 and an average of \$3.7 billion in 1958, 1959 and 1960.

The smaller 1962 deficit was due largely to advance debt repayments by other countries and a net drop in private U.S. capital invested abroad. Early repayment of loans by France, Italy and Sweden, plus sales of securities to Italy and Switzerland, alone added \$900 million to U.S. receipts in 1962. (20)

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

The following publications are issued by the Economic Research Service and cooperatively by the state universities and colleges. Unless otherwise noted, reports listed here and under Sources are published by ERS. Single copies are available free from the Division of Information, OMS, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D.C. State publications may be obtained from the issuing agencies of the respective states.

FARM VACATIONS IN EAST CENTRAL OHIO — DEVELOPMENT, PROFITS, AND PROBLEMS. Jeanne Davis, Resource Development Economics Division. ERS-113.

Providing nonfarm families with opportunities to vacation on farms can help farmers supplement their incomes. Farm vacation enterprises have been started in five east central Ohio counties with no additional capital investment in the farm and with space available for as few as two guests. Business generally is slow the first year but increases markedly the second or third year. Annual net income ranged from \$150 to \$1,500 for families who had provided farm vacation facilities for two years or longer.

FARM PRICES OF APPLES FOR CANNING AND FREEZING — UNITED STATES, 1951-61. E. C. Pasour, Jr. and D. L. Oldenstadt, Marketing Economics Division. (In cooperation with Michigan State University Experiment Station.) Agricultural Economic Report No. 35.

Results from this study indicate that the U.S. season average farm price of canning and freezing apples can be estimated quite accurately by using data available early in the marketing season.

SHELL EGG MARKET STRUCTURE IN FIVE EASTERN METROPOLITAN AREAS. John R. Pederson and William L. Mitchell, Marketing Economics Division. ERS-118.

The sale of shell eggs to the final consumer in five eastern markets (New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Pittsburgh and Baltimore) was handled primarily by three types of firms in 1960. Retail food store chains handled from 45 per cent (in Philadelphia) to 60 per cent (in Boston) of the net total retail sales of eggs by all types of retail establishments. Sales by the independent grocery stores ranged between 15 per cent (in Boston) and 32 per

cent (in Pittsburgh). The wholesale distributors, besides moving a large portion of the shell eggs purchased by independent and food store chains, sold eggs to restaurants, hotels, cafeterias, institutions, and their own retail outlets and to milk distribution companies.

PRESENT AND POTENTIAL USE OF EGG PRODUCTS IN THE FOOD MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY. R. V. Enochian, Marketing Economics Division, and R. V. Saunders, University of Maine. Marketing Research Report No. 608.

This report contains information concerning the present status of various forms of eggs products used by food manufacturing industries, and the economic and technical factors that affect their use in specific applications. It will provide guides to the egg products industry and to government laboratories for improving utilization of egg products.

EL SALVADOR—ITS AGRICULTURE AND TRADE. Mary S. Coyner, Regional Analysis Division. ERS-Foreign 49.

Agriculture is still the basis of El Salvador's economy in spite of the country's relatively high degree of industrialization. Agriculture's contribution to the gross national product is about 35 per cent of the total. More than 60 per cent of the working population is employed in agriculture and around 90 per cent of foreign exchange earnings come from the export of agricultural products. Industrialization will provide an expanding market for agricultural imports: raw farm products for processing and more food to reflect the improving purchasing power of the country.

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Speech (S); published report (P); report in process (M); special material (SM).

THE FOOD WE ARE EATING: By the time we have finished eating in 1963, the average American may have consumed slightly more food than in 1962. Imports supplied about 13 per cent of total food used in 1961 and

1962, with such tropical products as coffee, sugar, tea and cocoa making up the bulk of the shipments. Only about 3 per cent of our food supplies from livestock products was imported. (21)

Commodity ¹	Average 1947-49	1960	1961	1962 preliminary	Preliminary indications for 1963	1963 as a percentage of	
						1947-49	1962
			Pounds				Per cent
Meats (carcass weight)—Total	148.5	161.4	161.0	163.7	166	112	101
Beef	65.6	85.2	88.0	89.1	91.5	139	103
Veal	9.7	6.2	5.7	5.5	5.2	54	95
Lamb and mutton	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	4.5	94	87
Pork (excluding lard)	68.4	65.2	62.2	63.9	65	95	102
Fish (edible weight)—Total	10.5	10.3	10.7	10.5	10.5	100	100
Fresh and frozen	6.0	5.7	5.9	5.7	2
Canned	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.3	2
Cured	.6	.5	.5	.5	2
Poultry products							
Eggs (farm basis)—Number	385	334	326	324	314	82	97
Chicken (ready-to-cook)	18.7	28.2	30.3	30.1	31.9	171	106
Turkey (ready-to-cook)	3.3	6.2	7.5	7.1	7.0	212	99
Dairy products							
Total milk fat solids	29.5	24.5	24.0	23.7	23.4	79	99
Total nonfat milk solids	42.9	44.0	43.2	42.6	42.4	99	100
Cheese	7.0	8.4	8.5	9.1	9.1	130	100
Condensed and evaporated milk	20.1	13.8	13.3	12.7	12.3	61	97
Fluid milk and cream	359	325	314	311	307	86	99
Ice cream (product weight)	18.7	18.3	18.0	17.9	17.9	96	100
Fats and oils—Total, fat content	42.4	45.4	45.3	46.7	46.6	110	100
Butter, farm and factory (actual weight)	10.6	7.5	7.4	7.2	7.2	68	100
Margarine (actual weight)	5.6	9.4	9.5	9.3	9.5	170	102
Lard	12.4	7.7	7.7	7.3	7.5	60	103
Shortening	9.6	12.6	12.8	13.5	13.2	138	98
Other edible fats and oils	7.3	11.5	11.2	12.7	12.4	170	98
Fruits							
Fresh (farm weight)—Total	132.1	97.5	92.1	87.1	83.5	63	96
Citrus	54.8	33.3	30.4	28.9	22.5	41	78
Apples (commercial)	25.5	20.1	18.6	19.1	19.7	77	103
Other (excluding melons)	51.8	44.1	43.1	39.1	41.3	80	106
Processed:							
Canned fruit	18.9	22.9	23.5	23.4	23.3	123	100
Canned juice	15.9	13.9	13.1	12.8	12.5	79	98
Frozen (including juices)	3.2	9.1	8.9	9.6	9.2	288	96
Dried	3.9	3.1	3.2	2.9	2
Vegetables							
Fresh vegetables and melons (farm weight)	147.9	131.7	129.9	126.8	126	85	99
Fresh vegetables	120.5	106.0	105.1	103.4	103	85	100
Melons	27.4	25.7	24.8	23.4	23.2	85	99
Canned	39.1	44.5	44.7	45.6	45.5	116	100
Frozen	2.9	9.8	10.0	10.5	10.7	369	102
Potatoes (farm weight) ³	114	102	103	103	103	90	100
Sweetpotatoes (farm weight) ³	12.6	6.3	5.7	6.3	6.5	52	103
Dry edible beans	6.7	7.3	8.0	8.1	8.0	119	99
Sugar, refined	95.2	97.6	97.8	97.2	97.7	103	101
Grains							
Corn products: Cornmeal	12.9	7.4	7.2	7.0	6.8	53	97
Corn sirup	9.9	10.2	10.6	11.5	11.5	116	100
Cornstarch	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	106	100
Corn sugar	4.2	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.0	95	103
Breakfast cereals	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	120	100
Hominy	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	107	100
Oat food products	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	106	100
Barley food products ⁴	1.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	63	100
Wheat:							
Flour (white, whole wheat, and semolina)	137	118	118	115	115	84	100
Breakfast cereals	3.2	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	81	100
Rye flour	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	79	100
Rice, milled	4.9	5.9	5.9	6.2	6.2	127	100
Beverages							
Coffee (green bean basis)	18.2	15.8	15.7	16.3	2
Tea	.58	.60	.60	.68	2
Cocoa beans	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.1	2
Peanuts (shelled)	4.4	4.9	4.9	5.0	2

¹ Apparent civilian per capita consumption of major food commodities, primary distribution weight. Data on Alaska and Hawaii are not incorporated except in fish statistics. ² Not available.

³ Quantities canned and frozen excluded; included with processed vegetables. ⁴ Barley used for food products in terms of malt equivalent.